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A self-renewing college is sensitive to the changing needs of each learner, its goals meet the learning expectations of students, its teachers translate these expectations into measurable teaching objectives, and it constantly revitalizes education. Present faults of general education include fragmented curricula, teacher orientation to national disciplines and transfer institutions, irrelevance to current society, and concern with abstractions. It should capitalize on the whole social and intellectual growth of adolescents, synthesize life experiences of adults, and allow students to help shape educational goals. Goodlad's concept synthesizes theory and practice, a point from which to examine curriculum and instruction problems. This paper analyzes general education curriculum formation by tentative, untested hypotheses. The fact that learning opportunities stem from objectives helps to develop rational curricula. These must be judged from the ideological, societal, and institutional levels (related to teacher and learner), thus providing built-in self-renewal. Contrary to Goodlad's model, the selection of learning opportunities (shaped by the institution via the administration) presently precedes determination of learning objectives (formed by subject-matter concerns via the teacher). The important task of translating educational objectives into learning opportunities must be done by teacher and administration alike, so that "continuous innovation, renewal, and rebirth can occur." (HH)

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IN PURSUIT OF THE SELF-RENEWING COLLEGE: THE GOODLAD  
CONCEPTUAL SYSTEM AND THE PROBLEMS OF CURRICULUM  
FORMATION IN JUNIOR COLLEGE PROGRAMS OF  
GENERAL EDUCATION

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of  
the Requirements of Education

261D

for

Dr. B. Lamar Johnson

and

Dr. Stuart Johnson

By  
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March 8, 1969

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## I.

What is a self-renewing college? It is a college that is ever sensitive to the changing needs of students as individual learners. It is a college in which institutional goals converge with the learning expectations of its students. Further, it is a college in which teachers are willing to translate the ever shifting learning expectations of students into measurable instructional objectives. Such a college is always engaged in the revitalization of the educational process, having "... a framework within which continuous innovation, renewal and rebirth can occur."<sup>1</sup>

General education in the junior college is ripe for self-renewal. Except in a few isolated instances, general education is being "caught not taught." There appears to be no institutional accountability for general education in any junior college aside from pronouncements to that effect.<sup>2</sup> And there seems to be no instructional responsibility for general education, lip service to that end notwithstanding.<sup>3</sup> None of this is unique to the junior college; it suggests only that the maturing junior college is covered with some of the same warts as its much older partners in American schooling.

Four issues mirror the uncertain quality of general education in what has always been proclaimed as both "a teaching institution" and "the most dynamic unit in American education." These colleges most likely have the highest "drop-out" rate of any type of school in the country, yet this attrition of students continues to be assessed as the "fault" of students rather than the failure of the colleges. Much of the curriculum in junior colleges is badly fragmented and entrapped by the time worn conventions of higher education. Students in a

growing number of colleges are voicing with passion their contempt for courses and instruction that fail to link them with the social realities of our time. To these issues may be added the indictment that the junior college is not in reality a community institution, but instead a cog in the "great society" wheel of American education.<sup>4</sup>

Uneasiness over the quality of general education in the junior college is best documented by the countless criticisms of the programs and the endless recommendations for improving them which have accumulated over the past quarter of a century.<sup>5</sup> Still the spotty recognition given by many junior colleges to general education aims, and the failure of virtually all junior colleges to evaluate the outcomes of general education programs with regard to aims, is as evident today as it was when General Education in Action was published nearly twenty years ago.<sup>6</sup> Moreover, the unhappy state of general education may be the primary basis for the observation of Edmund Gleazer, Jr. that the junior college seldom fits the description it received in its salad days as flexible, dynamic, new and responsive.<sup>7</sup> And the uncertain quality of general education may account for in large part why California junior college presidents identified "the effectiveness and improvement of instruction" as the major problem facing their colleges.<sup>8</sup>

That the deterioration of instruction and the decay of general education are not disparate problems facing all segments of the higher learning in America has been confirmed by nearly every commentator for the past decade or longer.<sup>9</sup> An especially pointed, but not altogether valid, observation of the junior college in this regard was furnished by Christopher Jencks and David

Riesman in their recent monumental study of The Academic Revolution.<sup>10</sup> They argue that most teachers of junior college general education courses are "immunized" from any meaningful change by their limited autonomy, by their isolation from the mainstreams of educational life, and by their fidelity to the mores of academic disciplines.<sup>11</sup> Yet junior college teachers probably have more autonomy than many teachers in private liberal arts colleges; if the junior college instructor fails to exploit his academic autonomy it is not the fault of the institution. Besides, teachers in junior colleges are no more "immunized" from change than their counterparts in senior institutions; the mainstreams of educational life are not secret underground rivers. Still Jencks and Riesman are not mistaken when they suggest that junior college teachers of general education courses often look to their national disciplines and transfer institutions for guidance in fashioning the substance of course work. This is a decided weakness, but it has been noted by many other writers as well.<sup>12</sup>

However, it is not necessary for general education in the junior college to undergo the vicissitudes it encounters in senior colleges and universities. Surely the triumph of "academic man," his disciplinary knowledge, and what Joseph Schwab calls his metametatheories<sup>13</sup> has not enveloped the junior college. Certainly university-style "breadth requirements" do not have to be kept in the lists by junior colleges to head off the search of graduate departments for recruits in undergraduate colleges. There is no reason why a junior college cannot provide each student, apart from its allocative programs in transfer education and technical-vocational training, with a reasonably comprehensive perspective of

himself and his society and the requisite skills for grasping and resolving problems with discernment.<sup>14</sup>

On a number of grounds general education is a significant program of the junior college, and its decay should command our closest attention. Because it transcends the allocative function of transfer and technical-vocational programs in junior colleges, general education ought to be the binding mortar which holds the college together as an educational enterprise.<sup>15</sup> Because it emphasizes the "seamless web of human development," general education should be the sanctuary for students unwilling to select a major, unable to decide upon a vocation, or yet incapable of coming to terms with their own limitations. Because general education need not be concerned with the hoary abstractions of academic disciplines nor the stultifying redundancies of high school curricula, it can liberate students from the conventionalism of all preparatory education. Moreover, it can capitalize on the general intellectual and social development of late adolescents and synthesize the life experiences of adults. And general education is the one curricular program in which students can directly assist in the shaping of educational goals and objectives.

At present the above characteristics of possibly a utopian general education program do not exist. General education is typically the moonlight reflection of transfer curricula, thus lacking its own generative resources. The "seamless web of human development" is parceled out to academic divisions and departments. It is embedded in subject-matter of interest to teachers but not necessary of interest to their students. And in the absence of any evaluation of student outcomes in general education it can only be assumed that maturation alone might account for the students subsequent behavior as citizens.<sup>16</sup>

What accounts for the current state of general education in the junior college? An inadequate understanding of the idea of general education? Possibly; but research is needed here since the idea of general education has been associated with the very development of junior colleges.<sup>17</sup> The antipathy of staff members to the need for general education? Again, a possibility demanding careful investigation, because the need for general education is manifested by practically every writer on the junior college movement.<sup>18</sup> Major philosophical differences within junior colleges over the ends of general education? This is possible; but the instrumentalist notion that general education should further the "self-actualization" of students seems to be the dominant premise.<sup>19</sup>

For certain there is lacking an adequate conceptual system by which junior college general education programs can be viewed and assessed in a comprehensive manner. And this paper is concerned with developing such a conceptual system, one that has an eye to theory and an eye to practice.

The following section summarizes the curriculum formation conceptual system developed by John Goodlad. It is a synthesis of theory and practice and a necessary point of departure for any examination of the problems of curriculum and instruction in any educational setting. The third section of the paper is devoted to analyzing general education curriculum formation in junior colleges in terms of the Goodlad model. This analysis is in a tentative form only, hardly more than deductive hypotheses, pending a rigorous testing of the validity of the hypotheses. But the analysis is suggestive of the sort of conceptual system, although rooted in the Goodlad model, which reflects the actual curricular practices of junior colleges.

## I I.

There is no systematic critique of curriculum formation in the junior college.<sup>20</sup> Instead the literature is loaded with programmatic assessments of curricular programs, i.e. transfer curricula, general educational curricula, technical-vocational curricula, etc.<sup>21</sup> Unquestionably these are valuable, but they can only hint at the decision-making process in junior colleges that results in "announcements of courses" and the subsequent instruction which takes place. The absence of such critiques is not surprising though, because fruitful curriculum theory has always been a dear commodity in the market place of educational ideas.

In contemporary American education Ralph Tyler's Principles<sup>22</sup> and John Goodlad's Conceptual System<sup>23</sup> are the only adequate theoretical formulations dealing with the problems of curriculum and instruction from a comprehensive and non-programmatic perspective. The two are not unrelated; Dean Goodlad's conceptual system is constructed, in large part, on the four central questions regarding curriculum inquiry raised by Professor Tyler thirty years ago:

1. What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?
2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
3. How can these educational experiences be effectively organized?
4. How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?<sup>24</sup>

The Goodlad conceptual system provides answers to these questions within the context of the organizational framework of the school. It identifies types of curricular decisions. It pinpoints the "levels" from which these curricular decisions spring. And it proposes a strategy by which curricular decision-making at these "levels" can be squared with the notion of curriculum rationality. The need for

a "rational" curriculum in general education has been recognized for a long time.<sup>25</sup>

According to Goodlad, curricular decisions are fashioned at three concrete levels.<sup>26</sup> Closest to the learner is the instructional level where the teacher operates. Further removed from the learner is the institutional level at which the "total" faculty and the administration function. Even further removed from the learner is the societal level which includes a governing board and a number of other legal (i.e. the legislature, Congress, state board of education, etc.) and extra-legal (i.e. accrediting agencies, professional and academic associations, etc.) controlling agencies. Beyond the societal level is a fourth--the ideological level--which encompasses the visceral impressions of curricular means and ends extant in society. This level includes the school's sanctioning body (usually the voters of a school district), parents of students, educational publicists of all sorts, spokesmen for various groups, and most recently the students themselves.

A curriculum is a set of intended learnings "...to be learned by individuals, developed in learners, or produced in society through or as a consequence of education."<sup>27</sup> A rational curriculum is a set of intended learnings that stems from: an agreement on curricular means and ends at least at the three concrete levels, and agreement on which curricular decisions will be made at what level, and an agreement on evaluation procedures to assess the congruence of learning outcomes and intended learnings.<sup>28</sup>

Goodlad prescribes the means by which curriculum rationality may be effectuated by promoting the idea of rationality in the derivation of educational ends, and by suggesting a rational scheme for allocating curricular decision-making responsibility in the school. At the heart of the conceptual system is

the assignment of discrete categories of curricular decisions to the three concrete levels according to the remoteness of the level from the learner. These categories are educational aims, educational objectives, learning opportunities and organizing centers for learning.

Educational aims are the broad purposes for schooling, the "...remote end s for the guidance of educational activity."<sup>29</sup> In the Goodlad model they are fashioned at the societal level. He observes that:

"The selection of education aims involves, first, selection from among values; second, derivation of ends from the values selected which can be achieved through education; and third, choices of those aims deemed most relevant to the specialized interests of the institution involved." <sup>30</sup>

That aims, first of all, are derived from values permeating the ideological level seems obvious. But the process by which the educational aims of a school are drawn from the fourth level is much less obvious. There is more than one controlling agency at the societal level engaged in formulating aims for schools, and each of these controlling agencies is subjected to varying pressures from different ideological level constituencies. (An examination of this derivative process is needed, but the topic is beyond the scope of this paper.) Selecting ends that can be achieved through education and adopting those which are most relevant for a particular school are processes influenced to some extent by legislative enactments at the societal level. Yet the precise character of educational aims is determined by the governing board of a school.

The aims of a school need not be complementary, but they should not be contradictory. As Goodlad points out: "It would be difficult, for example, to

reconcile developing the potentialities of all individuals, on the one hand, and having persons accept 'their' station in life, on the other."<sup>31</sup> Having identified some aims makes it possible for a school to proceed with rational curriculum planning. An example of a commonly stated aim of general education for junior college students is "exercising the privileges and responsibilities of democratic citizenship" with increasing competence.<sup>32</sup>

From the aims decided upon by the governing board of a school at the societal level, administrators and teachers derive educational objectives at the institutional level. "An educational objective is a statement of what students are to know, be able to do, prefer or believe as a consequence of being in the school program."<sup>33</sup> To avoid ambiguity these objectives should be stated in behavioral terms along the lines suggested by Ralph Tyler. Thus each objective would contain "...both the kind of behavior to be developed in the student and the content or area of life in which this behavior is to operate."<sup>34</sup>

Educational objectives should not be developed apart from aims; this would undermine the rationality of curriculum formation. The institutional level should conceive the task prismatically--refracting educational aims into a spectrum of educational objectives. Proper refraction will require attention being given to comprehensiveness (are all the aims being refined?) and internal consistency (are all the objectives consonant with one another?) by teachers and administrators.<sup>35</sup> A logician may be needed to assist them in ferreting out logical and appropriate objectives from stated educational aims! Further refinement of these objectives may be useful; if so, it is the task of the teacher at the instructional level. But the behavioral and substantive elements of educational objectives should be sufficiently

explicit for them to be readily elicited by a testing instrument.<sup>36</sup>

Behavioral elements in the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains of human learning have been classified into taxonomies by Benjamin Bloom and his associates.<sup>37</sup> Yet there are no similar taxonomies for substantive elements.<sup>38</sup> Goodlad does not believe that the traditional classifications of knowledge by subject-matter (the social sciences and the physical sciences; sociology, and physics, etc.) are very promising sources for substantive elements in educational objectives.<sup>39</sup> He argues that these traditional classifications preclude "...the inclusions of newer disciplines or newer branches of old disciplines in the curriculum."<sup>40</sup> However, he observes that the contemporary emphasis on the structure of disciplines and the teaching of concepts, processes, etc. by some educational theories and academic specialists holds promise for "...something substantive in the curriculum that is more powerful than facts alone."<sup>41</sup>

Besides deriving educational objectives at the institutional level, teachers and administrators design "learning opportunities." A learning opportunity is a situation created within the school that "...suggest[s] the general character of what learners will be called upon to do in seeking to attain educational ends."<sup>42</sup> The selection and organization of learning opportunities in the Goodlad conceptual system is not based on subject-matter fields; i.e. English, social studies, etc. Goodlad argues for the creation of learning opportunities which cluster sets of substantive elements and matches them with a common set of behavioral elements.<sup>43</sup> He recognizes that there are a relatively small number of behavioral elements which teachers hope to develop in students compared with the virtually unending number of substantive contexts in which these behaviors could be developed.<sup>44</sup> For example,

the behavior "to comprehend" (the lowest level of understanding in the Bloom Taxonomy)<sup>45</sup> can be matched with any substantive element: to comprehend the responsibilities of citizenship, to comprehend the Second Law of Thermodynamics, etc.

At the base of the curricular decision-making scheme, closest to the learner, is the instructional level where the teacher determines "organizing centers for learning." The organizing center is "...a catch-hold point through which specific behaviors are to be developed."<sup>46</sup> It could be reading an essay, performing a chemistry or physics experiment, viewing a filmstrip, etc. Given precise information beforehand regarding the behavior to be developed (and the substantive context in which it is to be developed), students can assist their teacher immeasurably in the selection of interesting organizing centers.

Where are the data sources for these curriculum decisions? Goodlad's curriculum planners turn to funded knowledge and conventional wisdom.<sup>47</sup> Funded knowledge inspires little or no controversy among specialists; and it may be sub-divided into the three data sources identified in the Tyler rationale, i.e. funded knowledge about the learner, funded knowledge about society, and the funded knowledge of academic subject-matter.<sup>48</sup> Conventional wisdom "...tap[s] the interests, wishes, beliefs, and understandings of those who sanction the educational system or consume education. . . ."<sup>49</sup> Shrewd tapping of conventional wisdom by curriculum planners can hold the ideological level at bay.

How does the rational derivation of ends and the allocation of decisions vouchsafe evaluation of learning outcomes with respect to intended learnings? Two possibilities exist. Educational ends may be considered variables independent of any particular student body. (In fact, they could be considered fixed universals,)

If this is the case, intended learnings are constant and the attention of the institutional and instructional levels will be fixed on creating optimum conditions for student learning. Continuous testing will reveal the degree of congruence between learning outcomes and intended learnings. Curricula with such ends typify professional schools of law and medicine.

On the other hand, the educational ends of school may be dependent variables whereby learning outcomes (the behavior changes manifested by students) are mutually dependent upon intended learnings (the behavior changes the school seeks to bring about in students). The purpose of mutual dependency of ends and outcomes would be prompted by the desire of the school to implement a realistic set of intended learnings; that is, a set of learnings which research indicates can be learned. The tasks of the institutional level and the instructional level might be more demanding since research would need to be undertaken for every group of students. Curricula with dependent ends would seem most appropriate for schools with student bodies that are heterogenous in many respects.

In sum, the Goodlad conceptual system reveals the essential techniques a school might employ in pursuing the construction of a rational curriculum. The allocation of curricular decision-making responsibility according to the remoteness of learners from the "levels" is very reasonable. The distinctive qualities Goodlad gives educational aims and educational objectives illuminates the darker corners of curriculum formation. And the notion that learning opportunities stem from objectives is an insight of enormous importance to curriculum planners developing

"rational" curricula. The idea that evaluation is a task of all three concrete levels builds into the conceptual system the very essence of self-renewal, for constant appraisal and reappraisal of learning outcomes is the well-spring of educational change. (A diagrammatic summary of Goodlad's conceptual system is on the following page.)

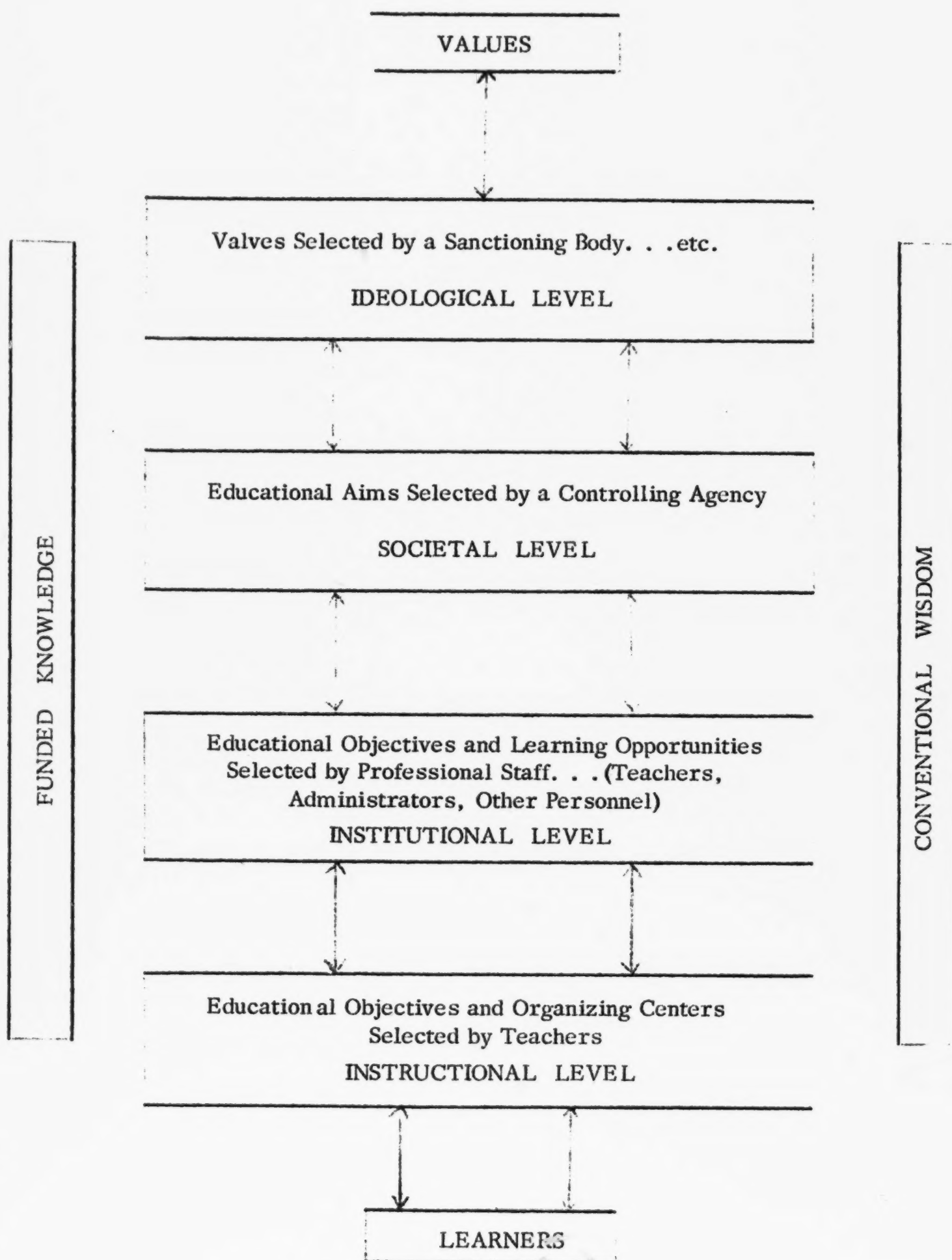


Figure 1. Curricular decisions, levels of authority and responsibility, derivations, evaluations, data sources, and transactions in a conceptual system for curriculum. (Goodlad, Conceptual System. p. 68.)

### III

Some of the conditions for rational curriculum formation in general education programs already exist in junior colleges. The "levels" of decision-making are certainly present in many of them. There is a governing board at the societal level, a curriculum committee composed of teachers and administrators functioning at the institutional level, and naturally instructors teaching at the instructional level. Besides, there is a configuration of educational values--tantamount to a distinct educational ideology--uniquely identified with the role of junior colleges in American schooling.

But to have a set of intended learnings in general education, the decision-making practices of these levels must forthrightly complement and reinforce one another. This is no easy task for at least two reasons: (1) the organizational anomaly of the junior college as an educational institution, and (2) the disparate processes of curricular "decision-making" in general education curriculum formation.

As an educational enterprise the junior college is located someplace between what Talcott Parsons calls the "associational" organization of a university and the bureaucratic setting of many elementary and secondary schools.<sup>50</sup> The very heterogeneity of junior colleges (with respect to size, type of societal level control, sources of students, etc.) suggests that they are at every conceivable point on a continuum from associational to bureaucratic. Yet it is doubtful that junior college instructors are regarded as functionaries in the sense K-12 oftentimes are. As an associational organization a college or university ". . . does not stress 'line' authority, since basically all full faculty members are formal equals--or colleagues, as the common phrase goes."<sup>51</sup>

Relative freedom from highly directive authority is commonplace; it is one of the major characteristics of academic freedom.

No research has been undertaken to measure the "associational" characteristics of junior colleges, but one could hazard a guess that the large comprehensive two-year college is fairly highly associational. Thus its faculty would enjoy considerable autonomy (academic freedom buttressed by tenure) with respect to curriculum and instruction; that is, instructors would be relatively free to decide upon the aims, objectives, and organizing centers of their courses. And possibly these teachers would exercise extensive control over the institutional "mix" of learning opportunities. I will return to this point later.

Faculty control over the gamut of curricular decision-making processes from the ideological to the instructional levels is probably defensible in technical-vocational curricula and transfer curricula rooted in academic disciplines. Auto mechanics, nursing, psychology and literature are specialized fields of knowledge; and the teachers recruited to offer courses in these fields are expected to possess the requisite expertise. Moreover, specialized curricula are open to students on an elective basis; students are not required to take such courses by the college.

On the other hand, faculty control over general education curricula hardly seems justifiable if the program of general education is conceived to be set of intended learnings for all students. Goodlad would reject out of hand the notion that any "level" could fashion a "rational" curriculum of intended learnings for all students without the participation of the other levels. Obviously, one of the major drawbacks is programs of general education at most junior colleges is the requirement that students take specialized courses to meet the general education

ends. Surely this results in "getting at" general education by stuffing the student with specialized categories of knowledge. This practice has been reported in the literature over and over again.

To the extent that the societal level and the institutional level in junior colleges abdicate their responsibilities for developing a rational curriculum in general education, they are not only undermining the quest for rational curriculum formation but the program of general education as well. Enhancing academic freedom and teacher autonomy are not appropriate defenses for the failure or unwillingness of these two levels to engaged the "whole" college in an institution-wide effort of shaping a general education curricula of intended learnings for all students. To paraphrase Aristide Briand, general education is too important to be left to one "level."

On paper, surprisingly enough, general education appears to be the product of coordinated efforts and "rational" curriculum decision-making of all three levels. The governing board, at the societal level, approves the junior college graduation requirements in which general education is invariably encapsulated; a curriculum committee at the institutional level implements general education as part of the requirements for graduation; and teachers hopefully "get at" general education from time to time in the required courses. Pro forma there is a "rational" set of intended learnings. However, this is chimera; distinctive definitions of and discrete boundaries for curricular decision-making are lacking.

The derivation of educational aims and educational objectives is

hampered at all levels by the marked tendency for administrators and teachers (and probably governing board members) to regard aims and objectives as synonyms, viz:

"it is... the objective of this college to provide educational experiences which promote and emphasize the fundamental democratic way of life."

"The aim of the college is to assist students to gain the necessary knowledge so that they can intelligently make their own decisions...."

"Some of the goals of general education, expressed as objectives for each student, are implemented... in the following ways...."<sup>52</sup>

The use of aims and objectives synonymously at the institutional level is highly suggestive of a key problem in general education curriculum formation in the junior college: the absence of any refinement of educational aims into educational objectives, which in the Goodlad conceptual system is an extremely important facet of rational curriculum planning.

If aims are not refined into objectives at the institutional level, how are aims translated into the general education curriculum of a junior college? The common practice is to hinge them to learning opportunities (which will have to be considered credit earning course offerings hereinafter). This has resulted in "getting at" general education in the following manner:

"Exercising the privileges and responsibilities of democratic citizenship through the study of the Constitution of the United States, American History, and State and Local Government...."

and

"Using methods of critical thinking for the solution of problems and for discrimination among values as studied in science, mathematics, philosophy, social studies and other classes."<sup>53</sup>

Not all aims can be associated with any specific body of subject-matter; and this often results in "window-dressing" some aims with platitudinous nonsense:

"Developing sound moral and spiritual values by which /a student/ guides his life as emphasized throughout the college curriculum and included as an integral part of all college classes."<sup>54</sup>

In the Goodlad conceptual system learning opportunities are fashioned out of objectives, not aims, at the institutional level, suggesting that in a rational curriculum there is an intimate and logical relationship between these two type of curricular decisions. Certainly this is not the case in many junior college programs of general education. In fact, the determination of all educational objectives (related to general education or not) and the creation of learning opportunities or course offerings are disparate processes. Educational objectives, as Goodlad defines them, stem from subject-matter considerations mediated by teachers. Learning opportunities, in contrast to the prescription of Goodlad, are shaped by what Clyde Blocker and his colleagues describe as extrainstitutional and intrainstitutional factors mediated by the college administration.<sup>55</sup> And unlike the process of rational derivation prescribed by Goodlad, the selection of learning opportunities precedes any possible determination of objectives.

The organization of general education learning opportunities in junior colleges is particularly susceptible to "extrainstitutional" influence. Consequently, general education programs are seldom sui generis the result of direct institutional or instructional level decision-making in a junior college. Many of the courses are transfer offerings which often means that they are, in effect, the learning

opportunities of some nearby transfer college or university. These courses in the junior college will sometimes have the same course title, description, units of credit, and even the course number of the comparable offering at the transfer institution. This practice pinpoints the enormous control that senior institutions have on curriculum formation in the junior college--one which though readily acknowledged is not lamented nearly enough. With respect to the Goodlad model, senior colleges and universities are extra-legal societal level controlling agencies.

Where are educational objectives framed? They are created out of subject-matter at the instructional level. If a teacher identifies himself with an academic discipline (this must often be the case of junior college teachers recruited directly out of graduate departments), the objectives will be governed by the customs of the discipline. There is no evidence, for example, that the objectives of an introductory course in American government are concerned with increasing the competence of students in "exercising the privileges and responsibilities of democratic citizenship." In all likelihood the objectives for such a course are "derived" from topical areas of subject-matter of interest to the instructor; and instructor who in all probability considers himself a loyal disciple of the discipline of political science.

Medsker notes disapprovingly that the practice of "translating" a general education aim into a course tied to a discipline is condoned by numerous junior college administrators on the grounds that "...a good introductory departmental course per se makes a substantial contribution to the students' general

education."<sup>56</sup> As both Medsker and Johnson have pointed out, the "substantial contribution" premise is begging the question. And in the case of American government it simply is not supported by available evidence. Quite recent research reveals that traditional course work in American government and politics probably inhibits a student's political knowledge and possibly later his political competence.<sup>57</sup> If the same conclusions were reached about other courses that attempt to "get at" general education, the junior college may be destroying the very object of its expressed interest!

If teachers of transferable general education courses are "loyal" to the mores of their disciplines, it suggests that educational objectives in these courses are "controlled" at the societal level by the national disciplines. Even if teachers are not faithful soldiers of academic disciplines their educational objectives are not derived from the aims; they come from the vast array of "general" subject-matter. (In political science, for example, the American Political Science Review is the leading scholarly well-spring of the discipline; journals of opinion and reviews of politics are the sources of "general" subject-matter.) A diagrammatic illustration of this disparate process of "deriving" educational objectives and learning opportunities in transfer-type general education courses may be useful here.

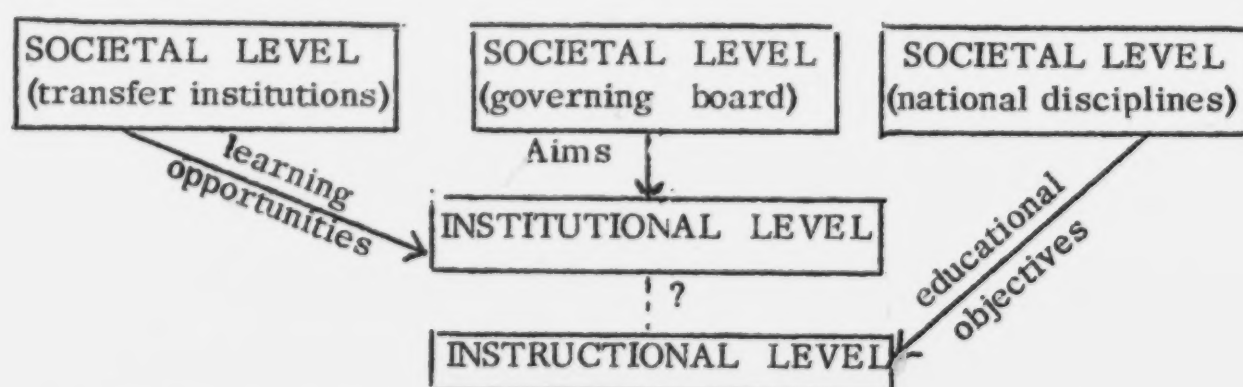


Figure 2. The process of curricular decision-making in transfer-type junior college programs of general education.

Some junior colleges have terminal courses in general education.

These are established at the institutional level and apparently are not directly influenced by transfer colleges--the notion of a terminal course offering is wedded to its non-transferability. Though ostensibly terminal courses are conceived to meet the "needs" of students seeking no more than two years of college work, such courses appear to be designed for students who cannot succeed in the more prestigious transfer learning opportunities.<sup>58</sup> It seems probable that the substance of such courses is "watered-down" subject-matter from the transfer type offering. There is no evidence that terminal learning opportunities are fashioned "rationally;" indeed, quite the contrary. Such courses are developed to meet the "needs" of students in the same manner as their transfer counterparts: the creation of the learning opportunity precedes the specification of educational objectives.

A curriculum formation process that puts the identification of learning opportunities before the selection of educational objectives is not rational with respect to the Goodlad model. The practice may be "rational" insofar as vocational-technical curricula and transfer curricula are concerned (or any learning opportunity that is not part of the set of intended learnings for general education). But is it tolerable in a program of general education for all students?

The pre-eminence of the learning opportunity or course offering as the baseline curricular decision in general education programs of junior colleges at the institutional and instructional levels all but ignores the presence of other decisions which have been made at one time or another at the ideological and

societal levels. In fact, all the elements necessary for a rational curricula in general education already exist in many junior colleges at the two higher levels.

Winnowing out a set of values appropriate to the function of the school, as Goodlad points out, is the necessary departure point for the derivation of educational aims and educational objectives. The educational value positions of junior colleges are not hidden from either the public (the sanctioning body) or the student (the "consumer"); they appear along with other topical material in the introductory section of junior college catalogues or bulletins. A recent study of these value positions disclosed that the "self-actualization" of students was by far the most common value statement appearing in California junior college bulletins.<sup>59</sup>

The value of self-actualization is promoted by junior college publicists at the ideological level; but to what extent does this value reflect the viewpoints of governing board members at the societal level? (or for that matter, the viewpoints of administrators and teachers at the institutional and instructional level.) Value positions are written into the first issue of a junior college bulletin, at the opening of the college, and may stay in virtually unamended for years. The existence of such statements may be acknowledged without hesitation only by the college officer, typically the dean of instruction, who writes and revises the catalogue. Research is needed to assess the tenor of commitment the governing board (and possibly the staff also) has to stated educational values if rational curriculum planning is going to be pursued in general education programs; because

it appears that the general education aims of junior colleges are the only significant ones "derived" from these value statements. If the governing board at the societal level rejects the value premises which have been parading in its college's bulletin, they will have to be changed. Undoubtedly, governing boards will leave them untouched.

Where do general education aims come from? Many of them come from the list of twelve general education aims in B. Lamar Johnson's book General Education in Action. These aims were developed by a faculty group under Professor Johnson's leadership nearly two decades ago. They are aims which certainly do not conflict with the value of "self-actualization." Indeed, these aims appear to be highly supportive of this value position. Some, if not all, of the aims in one form or another adorn the pages of countless junior college bulletins in California and elsewhere. Consequently, it is unlikely that governing boards were actively involved in determining these aims; they approved a widely used and respected list submitted to them by their superintendents or instructional officers.<sup>60</sup>

It is not necessary for a governing board to develop its own precise set of aims in general education in order to have rational curriculum planning. But board members must "accept" them and hold their instructional officers responsible for implementing them in a rational manner. (As I mentioned earlier, only the appearance of societal level responsibility for general education is evident in junior college catalogues.)

It is paradoxical that the ideological and societal levels are "ready"

for rational curriculum planning in general education when the institutional and instructional levels are not. Yet this paper has attempted to explain the circumstances which presently make it difficult for the lower two levels to proceed with the development of a rational curriculum of intended learnings in general education. In terms of the Goodlad conceptual system there are no rational curricular transactions between the societal level and the institutional level; but of far greater significance is the absence of rational curricular transactions between the institutional level and the instructional level.

Junior colleges can have rational curricula in general education when there is rational curricular decision-making transactions at all three concrete levels. Given accepted values and educational aims in general education, curriculum planners need "only" to derive educational objectives and create learning opportunities in a rational manner.\* The task of translating educational objectives into learning opportunities will be particularly demanding, but the advantages will not be few. In forming a rational curriculum in general education for all students, the whole process of curriculum formation in any curricula should become clearer to administrators and teachers alike. This is no sparse benefit; it could be the most provocative innovation in the junior college movement. For the very task itself will expose teachers and administrators to a "framework within which continuous innovation, renewal and rebirth can occur."

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\*The writer has a paper in progress suggesting ways in which junior colleges can derive rational educational objectives and then fashion appropriate learning opportunities for programs of general education.

## NOTES

1. John W. Gardner, Self-Renewal: The Individual and the Innovative Society, (New York, 1963) p. 5. Italics in the original.
2. Sidney Hook, "Perennial and Temporal Goals in Education," Journal of Higher Education, vol. 21 (January, 1952) p. 2 Colleges "...rest content with the formulation of goals, to overlook the difficulties in implementing them in concrete curriculums, and the still greater difficulties of evaluating to what extent we make good on what our college catalogues promise."
3. Robert E. Egner, "Evaluation in General Education," Junior College Journal, vol. 28 (April, 1958) p. 457.
4. The distinction between "community education" and "great society education" is made by Fred M. Newmann and Donald W. Oliver in "Education and Community," Harvard Educational Review, vol. 37 (Winter, 1967) pp. 61-104; see pp. 65-88 in particular. The "great society" viewpoint is analyzed by Norman L. Friedman, "Comprehensiveness and Higher Education: A Sociologist's View of Public Junior College Trends," American Association of University Professors Bulletin, vol. 47 (December, 1966) pp. 417-423. The trend of "centralization" was detected by Marvin Knudson, "The Junior College and the Decade Ahead," Junior College Journal, vol. 30 (February, 1960) pp. 307-308
5. A recent overview is in Gordon B. Pyle, "Community Colleges and General Education in a Free Society," Journal of General Education, vol. 18 (January, 1967) pp. 227-238; James W. Thornton, Jr., "General Education" in The Public Junior College (National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook) vol. 55, Part I (Chicago, 1956) pp. 118-139; Leland L. Medsker, The Junior College: Progress and Prospect (New York, 1960) pp. 55-63; James W. Thornton, Jr., The Community Junior College, 2nd ed. (New York, 1966) pp. 197-216.
6. B. Lamar Johnson, General Education in Action (Washington: 1952). This book is accepted by many accreditation teams as the outline for assessing a junior college general education program. Professor Johnson noted: "As one examines the graduation requirements of California junior colleges [the study was restricted to California] with the goals of general education in mind, he is impressed (1) by diversity of practice, (2) by the spotty and limited recognition given some of the general education objectives, and (3) by the apparent failure as yet to make any provision for some of the others." (p. 49)
7. Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., "Establishment: A Trend and an Opportunity for the American Junior College," Establishing Junior Colleges (University of California at Los Angeles, School of Education, Junior College Leadership Program, Occasional Paper No. 7) p. 14.

8. Basil H. Peterson, "Critical Problems and Needs of California Junior Colleges" (Committee on Institutional Research, California Junior College Association) mimeo. 1965, p. 26.
9. The "enemy" of general education, after fifty years, remains the graduate departments in Arts and Sciences. The most comprehensive assessment in recent years in Earl McGrath, The Graduate School and the Decline of Liberal Education (New York, 1959). More recent commentaries are in Lewis B. Mayhew, ed., General Education: An Account and Appraisal (New York, 1960); Russell Thomas, The Search for a Common Learning: General Education, 1800-1960 (New York, 1962); and Paul Woodring, The Higher Learning in America: A Reassessment (New York, 1968). There are innumerable essays on the state of general education, but one of the more pertinent is Sidney J. French, "General Education--The Second Mile," Journal of General Education, vol. 19 (April, 1967) pp. 89-97.
10. Christopher Jencks and David Riesman, The Academic Revolution (New York, 1968) pp. 480-492. They define the junior college as an "Ant-University" and consign it to be forever a "Colonial Outpost" of the real University.
11. Ibid., pp. 487-488.
12. Ibid., p. 488; Medsker, The Junior College, p. 58; Johnson, General Education in Action, p. 43.
13. Joseph Schwab, "The Practical: A Language for Curriculum," a paper delivered at the American Educational Research Association Annual Convention, Los Angeles, February 9, 1969, p. 4. has a number of trenchant ideas regarding the use of theory in curriculum.
14. This is a synthetic definition guided mainly by Lewis B. Mayhew, "General Education: A Definition," in Mayhew, General Education: An Account and Appraisal, chapter 1.
15. This point has not had much emphasis, but it is argued with great persuasion and considerable insight by Lewis B. Mayhew, "The Background of General Education and the Junior College," Junior College Journal, vol. 27 (November, 1956) pp. 189-193, and the concluding article on the topic, "The Significance of General Education," in ibid., vol. 27 (January, 1957) pp. 251-255. Mayhew sees general education and the junior college movement as parallel democratizing forces in American higher education.
16. Nevitt Sanford, ed., The American College: A Psychological and Social Interpretation of the Higher Learning (New York, 1962) is highly suggestive of this point of view. See in particular the chapter by Joseph Katz and Sanford, "The Curriculum in the Perspective of the Theory of Personality Development," pp. 418-44.
17. Loc. cit., Mayhew, "The Background of General Education and the Junior College," supra

18. The most recent summary of this position is in Thornton, The Community Junior College, 2nd. ed., pp. 61-63
19. This was the conclusion of Raymond Meyer in his study of California junior college bulletins. Tables 3 and 4 of preliminary draft of Ed.D. dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles, 1968.
20. Some research has been conducted on "curriculum determinants" in the junior college curriculum. See Clyde E. Blocker, Robert H. Plummer, and Richard C. Richardson, Jr., The Two-Year College: A Social Synthesis (Englewood Cliffs, 1965) pp. 202-205.
21. General programmatic assessments of general education curricula are in Thornton, The Community Junior College, chapter 14; Medsker, The Junior College, pp. 55-63; Thornton, loc. cit. The Public Junior College; and Johnson, General Education in Action. Specific types of general education programs are listed in the Junior College Journal: Index 1930-1967, pp. 16-18; they are far too numerous to summarize here.
22. Ralph Tyler, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction (Chicago, 1950).
23. John I. Goodlad with Maurice N. Richter, Jr., The Development of a Conceptual System for Dealing with Problems of Curriculum and Instruction (University of California, Los Angeles and Institute for the Development of Educational Activities, Los Angeles, 1966). The "emergence" of the conceptual system is in Goodlad, "Toward a Conceptual System for Curriculum Problems," School Review, vol. 66 (Winter, 1958) pp. 391-396; Goodlad (with the assistance of Margaret Ammons), "Curriculum: The State of the Field," Review of Educational Research, vol. 30 (June, 1960) pp. 185-198. The conceptual system is used for analyzing curriculum in Planning and Organizing for Teaching (National Education Association, Washington, 1963.)
24. Tyler, op. cit., pp. 1-2.
25. A. J. Brumbaugh and C. Robert Pace, "Organization and Administration of General Education," in loc. cit., The Public Junior College, chapter 13; W. Hugh Stickler, "Administrative Structures and Practices in General Education," loc. cit., General Education: An Account and Appraisal, chapter 2, especially pages 57-60.
26. Goodlad, Conceptual System, chapter 3.
27. Ibid., pp. 13-14.
28. Ibid., p. 14.

29. Ibid., p. 16.
30. Ibid., p. 43.
31. Ibid., p. 17.
32. Johnson, General Education in Action, p. 21.
33. Goodlad, Conceptual System, p. 17.
34. Tyler, op. cit., p. 30.
35. Goodlad, Conceptual System, pp. 50-51.
36. Ibid., p. 18.
37. Benjamin S. Bloom, and others, Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I: Cognitive Domain (New York, 1956). David R. Krathwohl, and others, Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook II: Affective Domain (New York, 1964). Elizabeth Simpson, The Classification of Educational Objectives, Psychomotor Domain (1966).
38. This problem has been dealt with at length, but the disciplinary "structuralists" are focusing their attention on (a) disciplinary order -- Jerome Bruner, The Process of Education is a threshold work; (b) key concepts -- Phillip Phenix and others are grappling with this; and (c) "centrality of method," in which the work of Joseph Schwab has played an important role.
39. Goodlad, Conceptual System, p. 49.
40. Ibid.
41. Ibid.
42. Ibid., p. 18.
43. Ibid., pp. 52-55.
44. Ibid., p. 54.
45. Bloom, Taxonomy, pp. 89-98.
46. Goodlad, Conceptual System, pp. 18-19.
47. Ibid., pp. 51-52.
48. Tyler, op. cit., pp. 4-21.

49. Goodlad, Conceptual System, p. 52.
50. Talcott Parsons, "The Academic System: A Sociologist's View," The Public Interest, No. 13 (Fall, 1968) pp. 173-197.
51. Ibid., p. 176.
52. Imperial Valley College: General Catalog, 1968-69 (Imperial, California) pp. 15-16. This catalogue is representative of most others with respect to these matters.
53. Ibid., p. 16. The italicized portions are statements added on to the aims listed in Johnson, General Education in Action, pp 21-22.
54. Ibid.
55. Blocker, and others, The Two-Year College, pp. 202-203.
56. Medsker, The Junior College, p. 59.
57. See Kenneth P. Langton and M. Kent Jennings, "Political Socialization and the High School Civics Curriculum in the United States," American Political Science Review, vol. 62, no. 3 (September, 1968). pp. 852-867. They review the growing literature on the topic. With respect to college courses in American government, see Albert Somit, and others, "The Effect of the Introductory Political Science Course on Student Attitudes Toward Political Participation," in ibid., vol. 52, no. 4 (December, 1958) pp. 1129-1132.
58. The problems of "terminal" general education are covered by Alfred W. Nall, "What about 'Terminal' General Education in the Junior Colleges?" Junior College Journal, vol. 33 (September, 1962) pp. 20-24; and Paul A. Elsner and Richardson, Jr., in ibid., vol. 36 (December, 1965/January 1966) pp. 18-21.
59. See Tables 3 and 4 in the Ed. D. Dissertation of Raymond Meyer, University of California, Los Angeles, 1968.
60. The General Education in Action list is an ambitious set of aims. As Johnson observed several years afterwards, there may be more aims present than any realistic curricula in general education could adequately manage. B. Lamar Johnson, "Toward General Education in the Junior College," Junior College Journal, vol. 30 (May, 1960) p. 517. Probably some of the aims are not as appropriate as others to the particular institutional function of the junior college; and Goodlad cautions curriculum planners to restrict themselves to appropriate educational ends that are not being met elsewhere in society.

**END**

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